

# Math 311: Advanced Calculus

Wolmer V. Vasconcelos

Set 3

Spring 2010

1 **Goals**

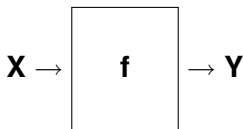
2 Cantor Set

3 Open Sets

4 Compact Sets

# Real Functions

Our main aim is to study interesting functions of the kind



where  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Y}$  are subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

If  $\mathbf{f}$  is a function and the sequence

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

lies in the domain of  $\mathbf{f}$ , then the sequence

$$\mathbf{f}(a_1), \mathbf{f}(a_2), \mathbf{f}(a_3), \dots, \mathbf{f}(a_n), \dots$$

is contained in  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

# Basic Topology of $\mathbb{R}$

We want  $f$  to have the following property:

- If  $(a_n)$  is convergent then  $(f(a_n))$  convergent.

This requires us to examine some sets of subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ :

- Open Sets
- Closed Sets
- Compact Sets
- Connected Sets
- Strange Sets

These subsets have properties that will explain why *continuous* functions act as they do.

# Outline

1 Goals

**2 Cantor Set**

3 Open Sets

4 Compact Sets

# Cantor Set



Rule: From each subinterval of  $C_n$  remove the inner third, to obtain  $C_{n+1}$

**Cantor Set:**  $C = \bigcap C_{n \geq 0}$

# Building the Cantor set in detail

- 1  $C_0 = [0, 1]$ ,  $C_1 = C_0 \setminus (1/3, 2/3)$ , that is  $C_1$  is obtained by removing from the interval  $C_0$  its mid third (leaving the endpoints):

$$C_1 = [0, 1/3] \cup [2/3, 1]$$

- 2 Iterate by removing from each closed subinterval above its mid third (and so on)

$$C_2 = ([0, 1/9] \cup [2/9, 1/3]) \cup ([2/3, 7/9] \cup [8/9, 1])$$

- 3 This leads to a nested sequence of sets  
 $C_0 \supset C_1 \supset C_2 \supset \cdots C_n \supset \cdots$
- 4  $C = \bigcap C_{n \geq 0}$  is called the **Cantor set**.

## Building the Cantor set—cont'd

Note that  $C$  is obtained from  $[0, 1]$  by repeatedly carving out the heart. At least, the endpoints of the various subintervals belong to  $C$ . What else?

- 1 We are going to argue  $C$  is very thin by adding the lengths of the intervals that were removed:

$$\frac{1}{3} + 2\frac{1}{3^2} + 2^2\frac{1}{3^3} + \cdots,$$

a geometric series whose first term is  $1/3$  and whose ratio is  $2/3$ , so it has for sum

$$\frac{1/3}{1 - 2/3} = 1!$$

So from  $[0, 1]$  we took away a subset of measure 1!



**Exercise** Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , argue that any countable set  $A$  is contained in a countable union  $\bigcup_{n \geq 1} [a_n, b_n]$ , such that

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} |b_n - a_n| < \epsilon.$$

# Cardinality of $C$

If  $C$  only contained the endpoints [all rational points] of the subintervals of its construction, it would be countable. Let us show otherwise:

- 1 We are going to code the elements of  $C$  by infinite strings of  $\{0, 1\}$  as follows: If  $a \in C$ , we set  $a_1 = 0$  if  $a$  belongs to the leftmost subinterval of  $C_1$ , otherwise we set  $a_1 = 1$ .
- 2 Once  $a_1$  is assigned, we consider the subinterval of  $C_2$  that contains  $x$ , and apply the same rule. In this we get a unique address for  $x$  as the string  $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$ .
- 3 Conversely, given any such string we build a nested sequence of closed intervals  $I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \dots$ : By **NIP** there is a point in the intersection. Actually unique **why?**

# Thinness and Fractal Nature of $C$

- 1 We observed two contrasting things about  $C$ : (i) it is very thin, since  $[0, 1] \setminus C$  has length 1. (ii) it is uncountable. Can one compare it in other ways to the unit interval  $U = [0, 1]$ ?
- 2 Observe that if we expand  $[0, 1]$  by multiplying each number in it by 3, we obtain the interval  $[0, 3]$ , that is we get 3 copies of  $U$ . However, if we do the same operation on  $C$ , we only get 2 copies of  $C$ ! Care to visualize?

# Dimension of a Set

- One way to define **dimension** of subset  $S$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is to compare  $S$  with the set obtained by expanding all points in it by a scale, say 3.
- For example, the dimension of  $[0, 1]$  is 1, because we got  $3U = [0, 3]$ , while the dimension of a unit square is 2 [9 new squares], of the unit cube is 3 [27 new cubes].
- In all of these examples, we say that the dimension is  $d$  if  $3^d$  is the size relative of the new set obtained by scaling the set by 3:  $3 = 3^1$  for the unit interval,  $9 = 3^2$  for the unit square, and  $27 = 3^3$  for the unit cube. So they have dimensions 1, 2, 3 respectively.

# Dimension of $C$

- 1 For the Cantor set  $C$ , if we scale the set by 3 we get the union of two Cantor sets
- 2 This means that

$$2 = 3^d,$$

so

$$\dim C = \frac{\ln 2}{\ln 3}!$$

# Outline

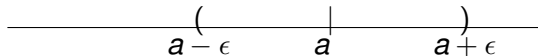
1 Goals

2 Cantor Set

**3 Open Sets**

4 Compact Sets

# Neighborhoods



## Definition

Given a real number  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and a positive number  $\epsilon > 0$ , the set

$$V_\epsilon(a) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - a| < \epsilon\}$$

is called the  $\epsilon$ -**neighborhood** of  $a$ .

Thus a neighborhood of a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is just an **open** interval centered at  $a$ .

## Definition (Open Set)

A set  $O$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  is **open** if for all points  $a \in O$  there exists an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset O$ .

- 1 The entire  $\mathbb{R}$  is an open set. Th definition also fits the empty subset  $\emptyset$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- 2 Any interval

$$(c, d) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid c < x < d\}$$

is open. For any  $a \in (c, d)$ , if we pick  $\epsilon = \min\{a - c, d - a\}$ , then the interval  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset (c, d)$ .

- 3 The subsets  $(c, d]$ ,  $[c, d)$  or  $[c, d]$  are NOT open: at least one of the endpoints do not pass the neighborhood test.



## Theorem (Template for a Topology)

- 1 *The union of an arbitrary collection of open sets is open.*
- 2 *The intersection of a finite collection of open sets is open.*

### Proof.

- 1 Let  $\{O_\lambda \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  be a collection of open sets of  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $O$  its union. If  $a \in O$ ,  $a \in O_\lambda$  for some  $\lambda$ . Since  $O_\lambda$  is open, there exists an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset O_\lambda \subset O$ .
- 2 Let  $\{O_1, O_2, \dots, O_n\}$  be a finite collection of open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $a \in O = \bigcap O_i$ , for every open set  $O_i$  pick an  $\epsilon_i$ -neighborhoods  $V_{\epsilon_i}(a) \subset O_i$ . Choosing  $\epsilon = \min\{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n\}$ , we get  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset O_i$  for each  $O_i$ , and therefore  $V_\epsilon(a) \subset O$ . □

# Limit Point of a Set

## Definition

A point  $x$  is a **limit** point of a set  $A$  if every  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(x)$  of  $x$  intersects  $A$  in some point other than  $x$ .

Other terminology for **limit** point: **accumulation** point, or **cluster** point. It is important to note that a limit point of  $A$  does not have to be a point of  $A$ .

## Theorem

*A point  $x$  is a limit point of a set  $A$  iff  $x = \lim a_n$  for some sequence  $(a_n)$  contained in  $A$  satisfying  $a_n \neq x$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

**Proof.** By considering a values  $\epsilon = 1/n$ , to a limit point  $x$  of  $A$ , we select  $a_n \in A \cap V_{1/n}(x)$ ,  $a_n \neq x$ . Note that  $a_n \in V_{1/N}(x)$ , for  $n \geq N$ . This means  $(a_n) \rightarrow x$ . The converse is clear. □

# Isolated Point

## Definition

A point  $x \in A$  is an **isolated** point of  $A$  if it is not a limit point of  $A$ .

This essentially means that we have an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(x)$  that contains no other point of  $A$ .

For example, let

$$A = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

The sequence of points of  $A$ ,  $(1/n) \rightarrow 0$ , so 0 is a limit point.

Any point of  $A$  is isolated: For example, if  $x = 1/3$ , the closest other point in  $A$  is  $1/4$ , so if we choose  $\epsilon < 1/3 - 1/4 = 1/12$ ,  
 $V_\epsilon(1/3) \cap A = \{1/3\}$ .

# Example



Let  $A = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Note that the closest point to  $1/n$  is  $1/(n+1)$ : So if  $\epsilon < 1/n - 1/(n+1)$

$$V_\epsilon(1/n) \cap A = \{1/n\}$$

## Definition

A set  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  is **closed** if it contains (all) its limit points.

In other words, for any convergent sequence  $(a_n) \rightarrow x$  of distinct points  $a_n \in F$ ,  $x \in F$  also.

Closed sets are ubiquitous.

## Theorem

*Let  $A$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . The set  $L$  of limit points of  $A$  is closed.*

### Proof.

- 1 Let  $x$  be a limit point of  $L$ . To show that  $x \in L$  we must show that  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$ .
- 2 Let  $V_\epsilon(x)$  be a neighborhood of  $x$ . It contains some  $y \in L$ . Pick a (possibly) smaller neighborhood  $V_{\epsilon'}(y) \subset V_\epsilon(x)$ .
- 3 Since  $y \in L$ ,  $V_{\epsilon'}(y)$  contains some  $z \in A$ , as desired.

# Examples

- 1 The interval  $A = [c, d]$  is a closed set: If  $x$  is a limit point of  $A$  there is a sequence  $(x_n)$  of points of  $A$  with  $(x_n) \rightarrow x$ . Applying Order Theorem to

$$c \leq x_n \leq d,$$

we get  $c \leq \lim x_n \leq d$ , so  $x \in A$ .

- 2 Consider the rational numbers:  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The set of limit points of  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $\mathbb{R}$ : Given any element  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , by the Density Theorem there exists a rational number  $r \neq y$  in  $V_\epsilon(y)$ . This can be reformulated as:

## Theorem (Density of $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{R}$ )

*Given any  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is a sequence of rational numbers that converges to  $y$ .*

# Closure of a Set

## Definition

Given a set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ , let  $L$  be the set of all limit points of  $A$ . The **closure** of  $A$  is the set  $\bar{A} = L \cup A$ .

- 1  $\bar{A}$  consists of  $A$  plus its accumulation points.
- 2 If  $A = (0, 1)$ , its closure  $\bar{A}$  is  $[0, 1]$ .
- 3 If  $A = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , its limit set is  $L = \{0\}$ , so

$$\bar{A} = A \cup \{0\}.$$

- 4  $\bar{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}$



# Closure of a Set

## Theorem

*For any  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ , the closure  $\bar{A}$  is a closed set and is the smallest closed set containing  $A$ .*

## Proof.

- 1 Let  $x$  be a limit point of  $\bar{A}$ , which we assume does not lie in  $\bar{A}$ . Note that any neighborhood of  $x$  must contain an element  $x \neq y \in \bar{A}$ .
- 2 We will show that  $x$  is a limit point of  $L$ , and since we have already proved that  $L$  is closed this would imply  $x \in L$ .
- 3 Let  $V_\epsilon(x)$  be a neighborhood of  $x$ . We want to argue that it contains some element of  $A$ . If not, it would have to contain an element  $y \in L$ .
- 4 Let  $V_{\epsilon'}(y) \subset V_\epsilon(x)$ . With  $y \in L$ ,  $V_{\epsilon'}(y)$  contains an element of  $A$ , as desired. □

# Closed versus Open

## Theorem

*A set  $O$  is open if and only if its complement  $O^c$  is closed. Likewise, a set  $F$  is closed if and only if  $F^c$  is open.*

**Proof.** Let  $O$  be an open subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . To show that  $O^c$  is closed, we must show that it contains all of its limit points. If  $x$  is a limit point of  $O^c$ , then every neighborhood of  $x$  contains some point of  $O^c$ . If  $x \notin O^c$ ,  $x \in O$  and since  $O$  is open there is a neighborhood of  $x$  contained in  $O$ . This contradiction shows that  $x \in O^c$ .

For the converse, assume  $O^c$  is closed and we argue that  $O$  is open. This means that for every point  $x \in O$  there must be a neighborhood  $V_\epsilon(x) \subset O$ . If not, each such neighborhood would intersect  $O^c$ , which is closed. In this case,  $x$  would be a limit point of  $O^c$ , and thus  $x \in O^c$ , which is a contradiction.

For the second part, just note that for any subset  $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $(E^c)^c = E$ .  $\square$

## Theorem (Template for a Topology)

- 1 *The intersection of an arbitrary collection of closed sets is closed.*
- 2 *The union of a finite collection of closed sets is closed.*

## Corollary

*The Cantor set  $C$  is closed.*

# Outline

1 Goals

2 Cantor Set

3 Open Sets

**4 Compact Sets**

## Definition

A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  is **compact** if every sequence in  $K$  has a subsequence that converges to a limit that is also in  $K$ .

**Example:** A closed interval  $[a, b]$ . The Bolzano-Weirstrass theorem guarantees that any sequence  $(a_n) \subset [a, b]$  admits a convergent subsequence. Because  $[a, b]$  is closed, the limit of this subsequence is also in  $[a, b]$

# Heine-Borel Theorem

## Definition

A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  is **bounded** if there exists  $M > 0$  such that  $|x| < M$  for all  $x \in K$ .

## Theorem

*A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  is compact if and only if it closed and bounded.*

**Proof.** Let  $K$  be compact. We first claim  $K$  is bounded. Otherwise, for each  $n$  there is  $x_n \in K$  such that  $|x_n| > n$ . Since  $K$  is compact:

- 1  $(x_n)$  has a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$ .
- 2 But convergent sequences are bounded, while  $|x_{n_k}| > n_k$ , a contradiction as  $n_k \rightarrow \infty$ .

Next we show that  $K$  is closed. Let  $x = \lim x_n$  be a limit point of  $K$ , that is  $x_n \in K$ . We must show  $x \in K$ . From the compactness assumption,  $(x_n)$  admits a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  converging to a point  $y \in K$ . Since  $(x_n)$  is convergent, all of its subsequences have the same limit, so  $x = y$  as desired.

The converse is left as an exercise.



## Theorem

If  $K_1 \supseteq K_2 \supseteq K_3 \supseteq \dots$  is a nested sequence of nonempty compact sets, then the intersection  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} K_n$  is nonempty.

**Proof.** The strategy is simple: We pick an element  $x_n \in K_n$  ( $K_n$  is nonempty) and consider the sequence  $(x_n)$ . Since  $x_n \in K_1$ , and  $K_1$  is compact, it admits a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k}) \rightarrow x \in K_1$ . We claim that  $x \in K_n$  for every  $n$ . Given  $n_0$ , the terms in  $(x_n)$  are contained in  $K_{n_0}$  as long as  $n \geq n_0$ . This means that the terms of the subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  are also in  $K_{n_0}$  for almost all of them. This implies that its limit lies in  $K_{n_0}$ , as desired.  $\square$